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Effects of Stylistic Personalization and Method of Presentation on Persuasion.

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EFFECTS OF STYLISTIC PERSONALIZATION AND METHOD OF PRESENTATION ON PERSUASION

A Dissertation

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Louisiana State University and
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by

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ABSTRACT

The experimental communication study sought to discover the operations of two basic variables, stylistic attempts at personalization and method of presentation in a persuasive speaking situation. Stylistic personalization was defined as prominent usage of rhetorical questions and utilization of first and second person forms of personal pronouns. Method of presentation was operationalized as either live face to face communication or televised presentation.

An experimental design was employed to test three null hypotheses: 1) there will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the level of stylistic personalization utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message, 2) there will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the method of presentation utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message, and 3) there will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to interaction of levels of personalization and presentation utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message.

Four versions of a persuasive message advocating lead free gasoline

were used as treatments. The first was a live, personal message; the second was a televised, personal message; the third was a live, impersonal message; and the fourth message was televised and impersonal. Four groups of college students served as treatment groups, each treated with one version of the treatment message. A fifth group of students served as a control group, hearing no message whatsoever. Following the treatment, all groups were tested with a Likert-type attitude test.

Single analysis of variance indicated that all treatment groups displayed stronger attitudes favoring lead free gasoline than did the control group. Thus, it was concluded that all the treatment versions were successful in bringing about significant attitude change.

Two by two factorial analysis of variance was used to test the null hypotheses. Null hypothesis number one was rejected as an $\underline{F}$ value significant at the .01 level was obtained. Follow-up tests indicated that the personalized message was significantly more effective in producing attitude change in favor of the speaker's position. A significant $\underline{F}$ value also brought about the rejection of the second null hypothesis. Follow-up testing indicated that live presentations were significantly more effective in producing desired attitude change than were televised messages. Null hypothesis number three was accepted. No significant interaction occurred.

As applied to a theory of persuasion, the experiment yielded some findings that should have practical implications. Primarily, whenever feasible, a persuasive message should be stylistically personalized and should be presented in a live face to face manner.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Style has been an important element of rehetoric since the beginnings of speech education. It has been particularly important as an element of persuasion. Persuasive theory implies that the speaker must take great care in selecting and arranging his words in a way that will inspire and move his audience. Also implicit is the notion that if the speaker does not take this care, he will fail in his attempts to reach the audience. However, "despite the central importance of style to a theory of rhetoric little has been done to clearly and systematically study this concept" (31:37). This 1967 statement appears still to hold true.

DeVito, in two articles published in the late 1960's (31, 34), called for increased experimental study which should help to develop a clearer and more complete theory of style. But, as DeVito pointed out, "much as we need to define and concretize the dimensions of language usage, we need to define more specifically the stylistic elements that are to be investigated" (31:39).

With this call for increased, systematic investigation of various stylistic elements and devices, this study attempted to examine those devices which have particular application to persuasion. Although some experimental studies have dealt with stylistic devices and their use in persuasion, there are

still many such techniques which have not been investigated. This study dealt with those techniques of style which are designed to personalize a persuasive message, to create an atmosphere of intimacy between speaker and listener.[1]

Implicit in the writings and teachings of most rhetorical scholars is that the more personalized the message, the more likely it is to move the audience. Stated in other terms, a message that utilizes a directive, personalized language should result in a psychological atmosphere between speaker and listener that is conducive to successful persuasion. Thus, one of the major purposes of this study was to examine this relationship between stylistic personalization and persuasion. Hopefully, then, in the context of behavioral experimentation, concrete information could be gained about this important rhetorical relationship.

Another key component of a persuasive speaking situation is the method by which the message is presented. In our society we are constantly bombarded by persuasive messages through various media. Among these methods of presentation are printed material, radio, television, and of course, live, face-to-face presentations. Naturally, numerous factors come into play in the selection

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[1]While it is true that writers such as Flesch and Mehrabian have studied linguistic features relating to personalization, their work is quite different from the scope of this particular study. Flesch, for example, was not as concerned with the intentional selection of such features to persuade, as he was concerned with analyzing the presence of certain words in existing manuscripts. Frederick Williams evaluates Flesch's Human Interest measures as being of more "popular than scientific" nature. (6:261). Mehrabian also sought to analyze messages after they were delivered. His studies of non-immediacy were designed to gain some insight concerning the source's disposition toward his referent and the communication situation. This particular study differed in that it especially was concerned with the intentional selection of certain linguistic devices and their persuasive effectiveness.

and utilization of these media. Such factors include the nature of the message, the message source, the size of the audience, and numerous other variables.

This study attempted to examine two methods of presentation, televised and live, in an effort to discover which is the more effective in a persuasive speaking situation. This is certainly not an original research area, but, as will be seen, research has not been so extensive as to allow a concrete theory dealing with the relationship between presentation form and persuasion.

Another reason for such an investigation was to gain insight concerning the possible relationships existing between method of presentation and stylistic attempts at personalization. Methods of presentation, like stylistic techniques, have certain qualities which lend themselves to creating a personalized atmosphere between speaker and listener. Most prominent of these qualities is the actual physical presence of the speaker in a live, face-to-face presentation. However, whether these qualities contribute significantly to persuasion is not known. It was one of the purposes of this to provide some concrete evidence of this supposition.

It is in light of this preceding background information that this experimental study was designed and carried out. It was an attempt to analyze and investigate two very important variables of the persuasive situation.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The study investigated the operations and interrelationships of stylistic personalization and method of presentation in a persuasive speaking situation. To insure clarity and provide understanding, it is necessary to make a more definitive examination of these two variables than has heretofore been given.

Many devices of style are available to the persuasive speaker for the achievement of goals ranging from attention gaining to pleas for action. These techniques fall under a general category of rhetorical stylistics. "Rhetorical stylistics focuses on the destination or receiver of the message and is concerned primarily with conative or directive language, language which functions to influence or persuade" (34:253). In this general category are various methods which have as their specific purpose the personalization of the message. These are referred to as techniques of stylistic personalization. In this study stylistic personalization was operationally defined in terms of two devices, rhetorical questions and personal pronouns.

Once referred to as interrogation, rhetorical questions have been considered as an effective oratorical tool since classical times. According to James Winans, rhetorical questioning is a method by which the speaker "phrases his thought as a question, which of course, he does not expect the audience to answer" (25:170). For example, a speaker might ask, "you don't really believe what my critics claim, do you?" Such a question while not calling for an overt response might cause a hearer to say to himself, "no I really don't." In this way, a speaker is able to draw himself closer to his listener by making the listener participate in the discourse. In effect, he is forcing each member of his audience to take an active personal role in the communication.

From early childhood, man has been acquainted with the use of personal pronouns. As a third grade English text points out, "there is no definitional problem with personal pronouns, because all of them can be listed: I, you, he, she, it, they, and we. These seven words are personal pronouns and personal pronouns are these seven words" (17:79). For the purpose of this study,

emphasis was placed on the first and second person pronouns and their forms. First person singular includes I, me, my, and mine. First person plural are we, us, and our. Similar forms are utilized for second person personal pronouns. They are you, your, and yours. These words form the operational definition for personal pronouns. Third person forms are omitted because they imply an indirect, objective type of relationship which does not convey personalization between speaker and listener.

Thus, operationalized, stylistic personalization was defined as attempts to personalize a persuasive message by prominent usage of rhetorical questions and first and second person forms of personal pronouns. Conversely, an impersonal message was one that is virtually devoid of these constituent parts.

The second independent variable under consideration was the method by which a persuasive message is presented. As previously mentioned, two methods were utilized. The first form was one that is televised. It was operationalized as a videotaped message presented over a closed circuit television network. The second method of presentation was a live, face-to-face presentation. As used in this study, it employed the same message, presented by the same speaker, to a similar audience. Thus the only difference was the means of conveying the message.

PURPOSE

The major purpose of this study was to add to the body of knowledge dealing with two independent variables, stylistic personalization and method of presentation, and their operations in a persuasive speaking situation. As will be demonstrated in the following chapter, research in these fields is far from

complete. In fact, in many ways, this study explored areas previously overlooked by behavioral experimentation.

Aside from just adding to research findings in the general area of communication, this study should provide valuable information for the fields of advertising, broadcasting, marketing, and education. In all of these fields, and even in others, it should be useful to have a better understanding of how personalization and methods of presentation may be utilized to make them more effective.

The main purpose of this study, then, was to investigate the effects of these variables in a controlled experimental setting. Levels of stylistic personalization (personal and impersonal) and presentation (televised and live) were manipulated in similar persuasive speeches given to four treatment groups. Then dependent measures were taken which yielded results that should provide insight into how these variables operate in a persuasive speaking situation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study basically attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. Is a stylistically personalized message more effective in producing attitude change than a message which is virtually impersonal?
2. Which method of presentation is the more effective in producing attitude change?
3. Which, if any, combination of personalization and presentation is most successful in producing attitude change?

CHAPTER REVIEW

Chapter two summarizes literature concerning each of the independent variables. It indicates research conclusions and points out weaknesses of previous research. Most importantly, it demonstrates areas which indicate a need for this particular study. Attention is also given to traditional assumptions and theory concerning each of the variables. The chapter closes with a statement of hypotheses.

Chapter three is devoted to a discussion of the design and methodology employed in the study. Careful attention is given to a full explanation of the methodology, including subjects, treatments, measuring devices, and procedure.

Chapter four is developed to provide discussion and interpretation of the data resultant from the experiment. Research questions are answered and results are viewed in light existing research findings and literature. The chapter and the study is concluded by a statement of overall conclusions and implications for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research for this proposed study resulted in two important findings. First, no significant studies could be found that dealt with the effect of stylistic personalization in persuasive messages. Secondly, nothing could be found to indicate that studies have been conducted which combined levels of personalization and methods of presentation in an effort to analyze their persuasive effects.

Because of these facts, the review of literature was broadened to cover empirical findings and related experimental studies.

STYLISTIC DEVICES

Rhetorical style has concerned speakers and speech teachers since the beginnings of speech education in ancient Egypt. Since classical times, the doctrines of style have been based primarily on Aristotelian and Ciceronian principles. During the years that have passed, emphasis on style has been assigned a position of prominence or of relative insignificance according to the predilections of rhetoricians. The concept of style has received attention in every modern text of speech principles. However, "despite the central importance of style to a theory of rhetoric, little has been done to clearly and

systematically study this concept" (31:37).

Joseph DeVito in calling for increased experimental study of style, directed particular emphasis to stylistic devices. He defines style as "the selection and arrangement of those linguistic features which are open to choice" (34:249). He further defines stylistics as those "linguistic features which are open to choice" (34:249). Traditionally, stylistic devices have been treated as methods or techniques which contribute to the development of a manner of expression that is suited to the speaker, his subject, audience, and occasion. To date, experimental studies of different stylistic devices have been concerned with this traditional approach. As will be seen, this study was also centered on investigating traditional views.

Perhaps the first experimental study of stylistics was conducted by the late Thomas Finfgeld. He sought to discover what relationships existed between a speaker's ability to choose the "right word" and various aspects of the speaker's background. He found that no relationship existed between this ability and the speaker's "general intelligence, verbal reasoning ability, vocabulary, sex, or advanced training in speech" (35:258). However, the study is quite old and further investigation is needed before definite conclusions may be drawn.

Another study conducted during the fifties was that of Weiss and Liebermann dealing with the effects of "emotional" language on opinion change (44). Their purpose was "to determine if communications with a high proportion of emotionally-toned words are more effective in arousing and changing affect toward an opinion object than are non-emotional presentations of the same information" (44:129). The method employed was to have subjects read statements for and against an anonymous individual. Varying degrees of emotionality

of words were utilized. For instance a subject might first read a pro, non-emotional statement and then a negative, emotional one. All possible combinations were employed, varying both the degree of emotionality and the order of the statements. Most of the findings indicated no difference in either emotion or order in affecting opinion. However, "the data reveal a kind of 'recency' effect" (44:140). When subjects heard positive and then negative comments, they tended to be negative in their final viewpoints.

A recurrence of interest in experimental study of stylistics seemed to take place in the middle sixties. In 1966, Bowers and Osborne published a study entitled, "Attitudinal Effects of Selected Types of Concluding Metaphors in Persuasive Speeches" (27). They looked at a traditional view of the metaphor as helping "the speaker to move his audience, to make his argument memorable, and to enhance his prestige in the eyes of the listeners" (27:147). Bowers and Osborne saw the metaphor as especially being present in the conclusions of speeches by such orators as Demosthenes, William Pitt, Franklin Roosevelt, and others.

Bowers and Osborne attempted to answer one main question concerning these concluding metaphors. "Are they more effective in changing attitudes than literal conclusions" (27:148)? They prepared four messages to treat the subjects. One message concerned protective tariffs and employed a literal conclusion. A second message was basically the same but utilized a metaphorical conclusion. Two similar messages were prepared, but they dealt with the topic, aid to needy students. Subjects were divided into four groups. Each group heard two messages, one with literal conclusion and another with metaphorical conclusion. After hearing the messages, subjects were given tests to determine

1) attitude change and 2) source credibility in three dimensions (competence, trustworthiness, and ingenuity).

In regard to attitude change, Bowers and Osborne found metaphorical conclusions significantly better than literal conclusions in bringing about change. This was true for both messages. However, measures of how conclusions affected source credibility estimates were not nearly so clear. Depending on speaker and message topic, source credibility fluctuated with no clear cut pattern. This seemed to indicate need for additional study of these factors.

Another study of the middle sixties was that conducted by J. Donald Ragsdale. In 1968, he published "Effects of Selected Aspects of Brevity on Persuasiveness" (42). He too, traced traditional concepts of this stylistic technique. "Implicit . . . is the idea that brevity affects the persuasiveness of messages in addition to making them more clear" (42:8). Accordingly, Ragsdale set out to discover just what effect brevity would have on attitudes.

Ragsdale operationalized brevity as "that expression (1) which contains words that are frequently used in the English language, (2) which contains no unnecessary words, and (3) whose components are syntactically simple in arrangement" (42:9). The subjects were treated with six versions of the same persuasive message. The first subscribed to the qualifications of brevity. A second was characterized by circumlocution, a third was tautological, a fourth was characterized by pleonastic speech, and the fifth was filled with sentence complexity. A sixth speech was characterized by comprising all of the preceding elements of verboseness. The subjects were measured for two findings. First, to discover if they showed any statistically significant preference for

brevity. Statistical analysis indicated that they did. Secondly, they were measured to determine if the brief speech or any of the others were significantly more effective in producing attitude change. In paired comparisons with the brief speech and the other versions, Ragsdale found that though the brief speech produced greater change than all but one of the other messages, this change was not significant. Thus Ragsdale concluded, "college students used as subjects tended to view brevity as a virtue of oral style and also tended to respond favorably to it when they encountered it in a persuasive speech" (42:13).

In 1969, DeVito published a study concerning the uses of active and passive sentences (33). DeVito also examined traditional speech education principles for a basis for his efforts. Traditionally, we have been taught to avoid the use of passive sentences in discourse. James J. Welch was quoted as saying "the passive voice robs the writing of force, pep, punch--the passive voice certainly makes the writing inactive, literally and figuratively" (33:401).

He presented subjects with various forms of active and passive sentences and sought to measure 1) recall of specific unrelated sentences, 2) passage comprehension, and 3) recall of specific sentences in a passage. In the first category, he found that subjects significantly recalled more active than passive sentences. But it should be noted that the initial noun phrase of each of the sentence was given the subject as a prompt. According to DeVito this explained why active sentences were recalled more than passive ones. In active sentences the initial phrase is the main subject of the sentence, but in passive sentences, the initial phrase is only subordinate to the main subject.

DeVito's second finding was that in regard to passage comprehension

there was no significant difference between those employing either active or passive sentences. His finding in the third phase was twofold. When students were asked to recall sentences verbatim, more passive sentences were recalled than active. However, when asked to recall sentences in form only, active sentences were recalled more often than passive. This DeVito asserted, was a function of the structure and content of the sentences. Passive sentences have a sort of "lexical redundancy" thus enabling verbatim memorization. But when recall of form is considered, active sentences are superior due to their simplicity.

Also in 1969, McCroskey and Combs published a study entitled "The Effects of the Use of Analogy on Attitude Change and Source Credibility" (40). They too, traced traditional rhetorical developments in the utilization of analogies as stylistic devices to enhance persuasion. Analogies, like metaphors, have long been a common tool of the orator.

They utilized messages containing two types of analogies, figurative and literal. Subjects were asked to respond to attitude scales following speeches employing one of these two forms. Analysis showed that both types of analogies were significantly successful in producing greater attitude change than speeches lacking analogies. However, there were no significant differences observed between either figurative or literal analogies.

As this review of experimental studies indicates, this field of stylistics has not been the subject of a great deal of experimental investigation. This writer must agree with DeVito (31) and others that much research is warranted. As pointed out earlier, stylistic personalization has been neglected. Realizing

this fact, this study proceeded much in the same way that previous stylistic experimentation has proceeded. That was to examine and investigate traditional rhetorical approaches, and then to inquire into the validity and application of those approaches.

It seems implicit in most all texts dealing with personal pronouns and rhetorical questions that these two devices are instrumental in achieving a more direct, personalized message. Once this personalization is attained it follows that attitude change is more likely to take place. To follow this up, the writer chose ten public speaking texts in order to survey them for their references to rhetorical questions and personal pronouns (2, 3, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 25). All of these works have seen prominent usage throughout the twentieth century, and all seem representative of the great majority of popular trends in speech education.

In regard to rhetorical questions, all ten devoted specific attention to their usage. They were credited with serving several purposes in public speaking. They help to amplify the message (10), to gain the attention of the audience (15), to clarify and dramatize the message (2), to make speech more conversational and natural (25), to serve as transitions between main bodies of thought (18), and so on. All these objectives are designed to enhance a speaker's message by making it more directive and personal

Thomas Scheidel in Persuasive Speaking assessed the value of rhetorical questions to persuasion as providing "focus, because a question always calls for implicit audience response" (19:66). James Winans stated that they bring "speaker and hearer into contact. The virtue of interrogation is in its prompting the

hearer to think for himself" (25:170). To date, rhetoricians have varied little from this position.

In the survey of the ten texts, the uses of personal pronouns were specifically dealt with by six of the works. The others gave them casual or indirect attention. Personal pronouns were credited with the same directness and personalization as rhetorical questions (2, 9, 14). They were also theorized to establish strong rapport, therefore, establishing a stronger basis for persuasion (2).

Typical of most speech text writers are the comments of James McBurney and Ernest Wrage in Guide to Good Speech as they stated, "use personal pronouns in formal talks much as you do in everyday speech. Remember you are talking with people, not to mannequins. The personal pronouns, I, you, and we are natural, simple expressions of sincere speech" (14:147). This too, is typical of traditional and current thought concerning the use of personal pronouns.

It is this traditional view of stylistic personalization that provided the basis for this research effort. Hopefully, this study may provide the first in a series of significant research efforts into stylistic personalization as used in persuasion.

METHOD OF PRESENTATION

As previously mentioned, there seem to be no major studies which have dealt with analyzing the efforts of various media and stylistic personalization in persuasion communication. As a result, this portion of the review of literature concerns itself with major research efforts dealing with the two methods of presentation utilized in this project, televised versus live presentation.

By the middle 1950's, studies were conducted which attempted to determine the relative effectiveness of televised presentations as contrasted with live, in-person presentations. One of the first was conducted by James Brandon (28). His main concern was to examine three methods commonly used in face-to-face interaction situations and to see how well they would adapt to television. He concerned himself with lecture, interview, and discussion procedures.

For the experiment he utilized prepared lecture, interview, and discussion programs which were rehearsed and then filmed. Each subject viewed several forms of presentation. Then the subjects were given tests to measure interest and information levels. On the basis of these tests Brandon drew the following conclusions concerning the three methods of televised presentation: 1) interview and discussion methods were significantly more interesting to the subjects, 2) the three methods did not differ significantly in ability to communicate information, 3) men and women did not differ in interest level or in the amount of information they learned, and 4) there was only a very slight relationship between interest level and learning (28:282).

In 1958, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters published a report by William Marion. He made direct comparisons between live and televised lecture programs in an educational situation. After teaching material to groups of subjects through either televised or direct classroom lecture presentations, he analyzed students' performance on tests of what they had learned.

The findings were typical of many other subsequent studies concerning

educational television. To the dismay of skeptics of ETV, no difference was found in the ability of students to learn under either type of presentation. A second finding reported by Marion was that students became disenchanted with television as time passed. A reason for this might be that television, especially for the classroom, was still relatively new and as the semester progressed, the novelty of television wore off.

A similar study came out in 1959. This one was conducted by several prominent speech educators, Samuel Becker, Carl Dallinger, Harry Crosby, and David Gold (26). Their study concerned itself with the teaching of basic speech communication skills. Their method was to divide beginning speech students into two groups. The first group was taught by conventional direct procedures, no different from the way most beginning speech classes are taught today. The second group was taught through a combined television and direct procedure. This group saw and heard televised lecture programs dealing with subject matter, principles, and practices. Then for speech practice sessions, a graduate student was brought in to conduct and evaluate speeches.

At the end of the semester each group was evaluated for their speaking, writing, reading, and listening abilities. Paired comparisons indicated there was no significant difference between the two groups on any of the criterion measures. Becker and the others concluded, "students can retain principles of communication and acquire skill in speaking, reading, writing, and listening equally well" (26:21).

In that same year, Theodore Clevenger and Martin Cobin published a similar study (30). Their study dealt with instruction in courses of oral interpretation. They sought to answer whether or not "an experienced teacher can

employ TV, in coordination with the efforts of graduate assistants functioning as classroom instructors, to provide instruction as effective as that offered by experienced teachers using conventional methods" (30:149).

Clevenger and Cobin taught three sections of students by televised procedures and four sections in a conventional direct manner. At the end of the course, the students in each group were measured for student improvement in oral reading of prose, oral reading of poetry, and general content knowledge. They reported three findings: 1) a small, but not significant, difference in mean ability in prose reading in favor of the TV group, 2) a small, but not significant, difference in poetry reading in favor of the conventional group, and 3) a large and significant difference in knowledge of course content in favor of the TV group.

The findings of the study led Clevenger and Cobin to conclude that, "it was possible to conduct a course via TV . . . which was at least as effective as face-to-face teaching conducted by experienced faculty members" (30:153).

A similar study was reported in 1961 by Hildegard Johnson (38). She was concerned with the achievement ability of students in introductory geography courses. Her methodology was similar to those studies previously reviewed, utilizing televised lecture and direct classroom presentation. Two findings were reported. First, students learned equally well in each type of learning situation. Secondly, the television procedure seemed to have greater appeal to the students. Again, this may have been due to the novelty of TV in the classroom.

Broadrick, McIntyre, and Moren published a study in 1962 which was very similar to the work of Johnson and the others (29). They too were interested in the application of television to the teaching of basic speech courses. They

divided beginning speech students into three groups. The first group received televised instruction of principles and course content. The second received direct class instruction by the same teachers that were involved in the televised instruction. A third group was instructed in class by teachers who were not involved in the televised classes. Data were gathered for each group in two categories: 1) grades on a final speech and final examination and 2) measurement of student attitudes toward the type of instruction they received. To adjust for student differences, grades on first speech courses and scores on the School and College Ability Tests were used as covariates.

The first finding reported by the experimenters was that no significance difference could be found for any of the three groups on the first criterion. Students learned and performed equally well no matter what method of instruction was utilized. They also found "that TV students were not as satisfied as their non-TV counterparts in the process of their attainment" (29:156). They saw this as a warning for future work in educational television. The warning was simply "do not undertake televised instruction unless adequate resources are available, and assigned personnel will have ample time and a real determination to give it their very best effort" (29:156). This warning bears great significance for other studies, including the research effort of this writer. Only work of top quality and effort should be used in such televised presentations.

Up to this point in the review of literature concerning method of presentation, the work that has been examined has dealt exclusively with the efficacy of televised instruction. But, in 1963, Kenneth Frandsen published his article entitled "Effects of Threat Appeals and Media of Transmission"

(36). The purpose of his study was to examine the interrelationships of three methods of presentation (audio taped, televised, and live presentation) with two levels of fear appeal (low and moderate) in persuasive messages. This study is in some ways very similar to this particular research effort. He, too, was concerned with certain personalization factors of persuasion. Although he was concerned with threat appeals, he also was concerned as to how "communication is personalized--i.e., the closeness of the physical presence of the speaker to his audience" (36:101-102). Thus, Frandsen sought to discover whether or not the medium of presentation would be a personalizing factor which would affect the amount of attitude change in his subjects.

Frandsen's methodology was quite interesting. He chose for his subjects six lecture sections at Ohio University. Each section became a treatment group. Subjects were then given a pretest to determine attitude levels on the topic of population control. A week later each subgroup heard a version of the treatment speech. The first heard a televised-low threat speech, the second heard a televised-moderate threat speech, the third heard live-low threat speech, etc. A different speaker was used for each of the three forms of presentation. Each message lasted approximately ten minutes. Immediately after listening to the treatment speeches, the subjects responded to a post test procedures. The procedure was designed to measure 1) attitude shift, 2) immediate recall, and 3) the subjects' estimate of the effectiveness of the speaker.

The primary hypothesis was not substantiated. No one of the six combinations of threat appeal and method of transmission produced a significantly greater attitude shift than the other. The second finding was that all of the

three media produced shifts toward the speaker's position at the .05 level. The same was true for immediate recall. Both levels of threat appeal also produced significant levels of attitude change and recall. A third major finding was that "none of the three media . . . produced a significantly greater shift of opinion . . . when compared with the other media" (36:104).

This last finding indicates that the methods of presentation lack that "personalization" quality which should produce greater amounts of attitude change. It is precisely this area that this study attempted to explore in greater detail and with certain modifications.

Another interesting but somewhat contradictory study was published in 1964 by Woodward (46). He examined the achievement of students in biology as taught by direct and televised presentations. 126 students were taught by direct procedures and 408 students were taught through the use of television. The same instructor was used for both procedures. In both cases, the instructor was well rehearsed and prepared and even had the use of a graphic artist and various other forms of instructional media. Students were matched for scholastic aptitude, previous science grades, and over-all college grade point average. As can be seen, all variables, other than method of presentation, were well controlled by the experimentor.

Two dependent measures were utilized. The first measure was that of achievement on mid-term tests and final examinations. The second measure was an attitude scale concerned with student attitudes toward the course and presentation.

The results were somewhat surprising. "In both the mid-term and

final examinations, with both groups receiving the same lectures from the same instructor and the same examination, the mean achievement of the direct group was significantly higher than the TV group at the .001 level of confidence" (46:2). The same was also true concerning student attitudes. Students in the direct classes displayed favorable attitudes that were significantly higher than those in the television classes.

Woodward's findings seem to be in direct contradiction with those of Marion (4), Becker, and others (26), Clevenger and Cobin (30), Johnson (38), and Broadrick, McIntyre, and Moren (29). In his report, Woodward makes no effort to reconcile this apparent contradiction. He only states that these were his findings within the particular framework of his study. However, this does point to the need for future study of a situation that was previously taken for granted. It was hoped that this study would be able to shed additional light on the relative effectiveness of live versus televised presentations.

As previously stated, no research efforts were found which dealt with the use of stylistic personalization and method of presentation. Texts in the field of public speaking have already been examined and it was found that they imply that uses of these devices will enhance persuasion. An examination of works dealing with television script and copywriting indicate the same thing.

The Power Technique of Radio-TV Copywriting (21), a work on script and advertising preparation, deals specifically with the subject of personalization. It suggests an individualized personal approach:

> Write all your copy as though it were intended for one listener alone. This is direct communication. You may think of your listeners as a mass. But a listener thinks of himself as one person. When the announcer says, "here's a good word for all beer drinkers,"

> he isn't talking to you . . . To grab your attention and interest he must talk directly to you. For example: ANNCR: "If you like a good beer . . ." That's more like it. Now he's talking with you. (21:122)

It is precisely this type of practice that this study examined.

An examination of the two independent variables of this study has indicated that research in the fields of stylistics and method of presentation is far from complete. In light of the research findings that have been discovered, and in light of the statements and implications evidenced by texts and other instructional material, the following null hypotheses were set forth for this study:

1. There will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the level of stylistic personalization utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message.
2. There will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the method of presentation utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message.
3. There will be no significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position due to combined levels of personalization and method of presentation utilized by a speaker in a persuasive message.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In accordance with the purposes of the study, the investigation was conducted through a 2x2 factorial design. This design required the use of four treatment groups plus another group which served control purposes. The experiment used two levels of stylistic personalization, personal and impersonal, and two levels of message presentation, live and televised. The following is an illustration of the design:

	Method of Presentation		
Level of Personalization	personal	televised	live
	impersonal	televised	live

SUBJECTS

Subjects for the experiment were drawn from five classes in the College of Education at Louisiana State University. These students were selected for several reasons. The most important reason was that they were from outside the Department of Speech. Past experience has shown that students within the Department of Speech have been subjected to numerous experiments and quite often take on reactive, unpredictable roles. On the other hand, students in education classes had little exposure to behavioral research and practically no experience

with communication studies.

The subjects were also quite homogeneous. They shared similar backgrounds, academic majors, and came from about the same age group. In all, there were 122 subjects used for the study. The test results of three subjects were discarded due to mistakes made in completing the attitude scales. One section of 24 students served as the control group. The remaining four classes made up the four treatment groups. One treatment group of 25 subjects was treated with a televised, impersonal message. Another group of 26 heard a live presentation of the impersonal message. Still another group of 23 was treated with a televised, personal message. The fourth group had 24 subjects and was presented with a live, personal persuasive message.

CONTROL GROUP

The control group was used for two purposes. The first function was to serve as a pilot group for the selection of attitude scale items. Their second purpose was to serve as a basis of comparison for attitude measures derived from the treatment groups.

During the week of April 23, 1973, a 26-item Likert-type attitude test (See Appendix B) was administered to the 24 subject control group. The measuring device was administered by the experimenter in the following manner:

1) The experimenter was introduced by the teacher of the class, Dr. Sam Adams, as a former student who was conducting a survey. This type introduction was used due to its simplicity and directness.

2) The experimenter then told the students that he was conducting a survey on the behalf of the Louisiana Petroleum Engineering Society. He explained

that various classes on campus had been randomly selected to participate in this survey on "Low Lead and Lead-free Gasoline." He also told the students that they would remain anonymous and their performance would not affect their course work. The students were asked to be sure to give their own opinions and beliefs.

3) The experimenter asked if any of the students had already participated in the survey. This was the case because some of the students were in those classes which had received one of the four treatments (testing of treatment and control groups was done in the same time frame in order to obviate the effects of any learning that might take place due to a prolonged testing period). Four students had been tested and they were asked not to duplicate their efforts because this would "distort the statistical clarity of the survey." The four students complied, and it should be noted that this in no way seemed to disturb the performance of the 24 students who did take the test.

4) The test booklets were then passed out to the subjects and the experimenter read the instructions. The subjects took from ten to fifteen minutes to complete the test.

5) The booklets were then collected and the experimenter asked if there were any questions. A few inconsequential questions were asked, which the experimenter answered in terms of the cover story.

6) The experimenter then thanked the teacher and the class for their cooperation and left the room.

As previously stated, the test results of the control group were used for two purposes, item analysis and comparison with treatment results. This

first purpose will be discussed in a subsequent section of this work, entitled "Measuring Device." However, some attention should be given to using a control group for comparison purposes.

There are two major methods of experimentally determining attitude change by means of pen and paper devices. One method is the use of a pre-test, post-test procedure, and the other is by drawing comparison with a control group. Each, of course, has its own advantages and disadvantages. It was the inherent disadvantages of the pre-test, post-test procedure that caused this researcher to choose the control group method. Orne states this problem well, "if a test is given twice with some intervening treatment, even the dullest college student is aware that some change is expected, particularly if the test is in some obvious way related to the treatment" (6:97). Therefore this study used attitude scores of control subjects as a sort of pre-test indicator of attitudes for the treatment subjects. The effects of this procedure on this study will be dealt with in Chapter IV.

MEASURING DEVICE

For testing purposes, it was decided that a Likert-type procedure would be best. This decision was made because most students would be familiar with the format that is employed in Likert-type measures. The experimenter wanted to simplify the test-taking procedures and to avoid confusion that might result with other unfamiliar attitude measuring instruments. In this way, the subjects could concentrate on expressing their attitudes and would not have to be preoccupied with the novelty of the device.

In accordance with the suggestions of Shaw and Wright (20), 26 test

items were constructed by the experimenter. All items were written as statements of opinion which the subject could identify with in one way or another. The items varied in several ways. Some were stated in very positive terms while others represented negative viewpoints. The statements dealt with all the major issues concerning the use of low lead gasolines. Some statements dealt with problems concerning the individual, others were centered on the family, and still others were designed to test attitudes toward community and nation. In short, the items varied widely in construction and appeal.

For test items of this type to be true indicators of various levels of attitude, the respondent must be able to select from different degrees of identification to the statement. In this study the subjects could choose from seven possible attitude levels. After reading a statement, the subjects could mark any one of the following positions: 1) strongly agree 2) moderately agree 3) slightly agree 4) no opinion 5) slightly disagree 6) moderately disagree 7) strongly disagree. Each of these positions was given a value ranging from six to zero. The determination of which position received a certain value was dependent on the nature of the question. For example, a positively written statement (one in favor of using lead free gasoline) carried a value of six for the strongly agree position and a value of zero for strongly disagree. However, for negatively written statements (one against low lead gas) a value of six was given for strongly disagree and a value of zero was given for strongly agree. In all cases, no opinion scored three points. Thus, the higher a subject's score on an item, the stronger his attitude would be in favor of low lead gasoline. Conversely, low scores indicated negative attitudes toward low lead gas.

One of the primary requirements for Likert-type test items is that they must be able to discriminate between various attitude levels of subjects. This is based on the premise that subjects who favor the topic should respond differently than those subjects who are opposed to the topic. This is termed as the discrimination power of the item. Thus each of the 26 items used in this study was measured for its discrimination powers. The responses of the control group were used for this purpose. A method suggested by Allen Edwards (5) was utilized. All test items were scored on the test papers of the 24 control subjects. The combined sum of the items yielded a total score for each of the subjects. Then the papers were chosen from the top and bottom quartiles. The other twelve papers were put aside for future use. A t value was then computed for each item. This value represented a critical ratio between the performance of the top group and the bottom group. The results indicated that 20 of the 26 items discriminated significantly at the .05 level or beyond (a complete tabulation of the item analysis is found in Appendix C).

The twenty test items that discriminated significantly were used for attitude analysis. Applying the item values of six to zero, total scores for each subject could range from 120 to zero. Scores ranging above 60 represented positive attitudes toward low lead gas. Conversely, scores below 60 indicated negative attitudes.

TREATMENT SPEECHES

For this design, four variations of a persuasive message were developed. Two speeches were written and two presentational variations for each of the speeches were produced. Each speech was designed to persuade the subjects to

use low lead and lead-free gasoline. This topic was chosen due to its controversial nature and recent evidence which had indicated a reluctance on the part of the public to use these gasoline products.

Each of the two stylistic versions of the speech was alike in organization, use of proofs, and other basic components. The only difference was the personal style of one and the impersonal style of the other. The personal version used first and second person forms of personal pronouns and several rhetorical questions. In place of these devices, the impersonal version utilized objective pronouns and nouns and declarative sentences.

An example of the pronoun usage is exemplified by an extract from the personal speech. "As Americans, WE are all aware of an ever-growing menace to OUR lives. That menace is air pollution. Almost everyday, YOU and I see the harmful effects of this massive threat to OUR existence." In contrast, the same paragraph in the impersonal version states, "Americans are all aware of an ever-growing menace to their lives. That menace is air pollution. Almost everyday, the harmful effects of this massive threat to existence are seen."

These quotations are representative of each of the speeches. Such contrasts can also be made for those areas using rhetorical questions. For example, the personal version asks, "Can we allow this to continue? Can we allow the lives of our children and loved ones to be placed in such serious jeopardy? Where is the answer to this monstrous problem that we have created?" The identical portion in the impersonal version declares, "This cannot be allowed to continue. The lives of children and loved ones should not be placed in such serious jeopardy. A solution must be found for this monstruous problem that man has created."

The speeches were written a week prior to the treatment sessions. Most of the evidence and testimony utilized was factual, but some of the statements were altered so they would be suited to the stylistic veriations of the speeches. The organizational format was typical of many persuasive speeches. First, attention was called to the problem of air pollution and the proposed solution, low lead gas. Then, three major contentions were developed: 1) low lead gas is effective in combating pollution, 2) it is inexpensive, and 3) it is not very harmful to cars. After developing these arguments, a plea for action was given (See Appendix A).

Mr. Richard Wyche served as the speaker for the four treatment messages. Mr. Wyche is an experienced public speaker and accomplished television speaker. The experimenter and Mr. Wyche went through several rehearsal sessions in order to make the delivery of the messages as similar as possible. This was done in an effort to minimize the effects the speaker and his delivery would have on the final outcome of the attitude scales.

On Monday, April 23rd, the two stylistic versions of the message were videotaped in the studios of the closed circuit television system of Louisiana State University. They were recorded on one inch Ampex tape using an Ampex VTR machine. Two cameras were used so that a variety of shots and angles could be obtained. In each of the versions every effort was made to replicate all aspects of production technique. This was done to obviate any effects that might be attributable to technical differences in the messages. A setting similar to that in the classroom where the live treatments were to be given was used. Even identical podiums were used. This, of course, was done to remove any possibility of differences in the surroundings interfering with the results of the

study. After taping was complete, the tapes were reviewed, edited, and then canned for use in the treatments.

TREATMENT SCHEDULE

An ideal situation was found for scheduling the treatment procedures. The four treatment groups were four classes in audio-visual aids which all met on the same day. Thus, treatment was completed in a single day, April 24th. The following schedule was utilized:

9:00 - Televised-Impersonal message

10:30 - Live-Impersonal message

1:30 - Televised-Personalized message

6:00 - Live-Personalized message

Although the treatment procedures were basically alike, there were some differences between administering the live and the televised messages. Therefore, each is explained in separate sections.

TELEVISED TREATMENT

The procedure was the same for each of the classes that was treated with televised messages. The two classes were sections of an audio-visual aids course. Therefore, a cover story was invented so that the treatment would seem to be part of regular class activities. After each group of students arrived at the classroom, they were instructed by the teacher, Dr. Richard Musemeche, to report to the closed circuit television studio for a demonstration of the system.

As the students arrived they were seated in a section of desk-chairs which were normally used for television production classes. After all the students

were seated, the experimenter gave the following introduction:

> I would like to welcome you to the studios of our closed circuit television network. My name is Ronnie McCrory and I am a graduate student in television production.
>
> Every semester we try to have classes come over and learn something about what we are doing. Because you are all in a class that is studying visual aids, it seemed only natural that we ask Dr. Musemeche if he would like to have you come by.
>
> How many of you are familiar with the closed circuit system here at L. S. U? Well, for those of you unaware of our presence, I hope this will serve to enlighten you about the purposes and services we offer. Essentially, we serve three purposes. Naturally, we produce televised lectures for various classes around campus, but we also use the facilities as a teaching laboratory. A third function is that of producing special interest programs for various departments and organizations existing both on and off campus.
>
> Since you don't have much time, we would simply like to show you one of the products of our labor. What you are going to see is a tape that we made for the Louisiana Association of Petroleum Engineers. They were kind enough to allow us to use it for this demonstration. The speaker is Mr. Richard Wyche, a graduate student in petroleum engineering. His subject is "Low Lead Gasoline."

Immediately after this introduction, the 8 minute tape was shown on two 25 inch television monitors. While the tape was played the experimenter stepped inside the control room, out of sight of the subjects.

At the end of the treatment message, the experimenter administered the testing device. For the purpose of introducing the attitude measures, the experimenter gave the following explanation:

> I hope you enjoyed the tape. There's just one more thing we would like to ask of you this morning (or afternoon). The Engineering Society asked if we would have you state your own opinions about low lead gas. To serve this purpose, they ask you to take part in this survey. Of course, this in no way identifies you or affects your course work. I think the survey is self-explanatory but they ask that I read the complete instructions.

The experimenter then passed out the test booklets and read the instructions. The subjects completed the attitude scales in ten to fifteen minutes. As they finished, the papers were picked up by the experimenter. After all students completed the survey, the experimenter thanked them for their time and trouble. He expressed a hope that they had learned something of the closed circuit television operations and told them that other demonstrations might be arranged for the future. The students were then allowed to return to their normal class work. At no time did the experimenter or the teacher of the class reveal the true purpose of the treatment. However, the students were told of their involvement after all the treatment and control phases were completed.

LIVE TREATMENT

Identical procedures were used for each of the live presentations. These two classes also were taught by Dr. Musemeche. Shortly after all the students were settled in the classroom, the experimenter and the speaker, Mr. Wyche entered. Dr. Musemeche introduced the experimenter as Mr. McCrory, a "former student." He then told the class, "Mr. McCrory asked for some of our class time and I was happy to help him out. Now, would you please give him your full attention." This introduction was worked out ahead of time, and was used to avoid any undue confusion on the part of the subjects.

After being introduced by the teacher, the experimenter gave the following statement of his purpose:

> Thank you, Dr. Musemeche. I appreciate your letting us come in this morning (or afternoon). I am here representing the Louisiana Association of Petroleum Engineering. Every semester we sponsor a series of talks made by our graduate students. What you are about to hear is one of those reports. Since your class

> is concerned with various subjects and how to present them, we asked Dr. Musemeche if he would allow us to visit your class. I hope you find this report interesting and informative.
>
> I would now like to introduce Mr. Richard Wyche, a graduate student in petroleum engineering. His subject is "Low Lead Gasoline."

Immediately after this introduction, Mr. Wyche delivered the speech, which lasted approximately eight minutes. While the speech was being given, the experimenter and the teacher stepped outside the classroom.

After the speech was concluded, the speaker left and the experimenter returned to the classroom to administer the attitude test. He gave the following introduction:

> I hope you enjoyed the report. There's just one more thing we would like to ask of you this morning (or afternoon). The Engineering Society asked if we would have you state your own opinions about low lead gasoline. To serve this purpose, they ask that you take part in this survey. Of course, this survey in no way identifies you or affects your course work. I think it is self-explanatory, but I have been requested to read the complete instructions.

The experimenter then passed out the test booklets and read the instructions. He answered any procedural questions that arose, but did so in a way that should not have influenced the subjects' performance. As the subjects completed their work, the booklets were picked up by the experimenter. After all the students were finished, the experimenter thanked them for their time and trouble. He expressed a hope that they might have the opportunity to see other such reports during subsequent semesters. The students then returned to their normal class work. The students learned of the true purpose of the study only after all the treatment and control phases of the experiment had been completed.

DATA ANALYSIS

Two statistical procedures were performed on the data derived from the experiment. First, simple analysis of variance was performed on the data collected from the control group and the four treatment groups. This was to determine whether significant attitude changes took place as a result of the treatments.

The second statistical procedure was a 2 X 2 factorial analysis of variance (level of presentation X level of personalization). This was done to discover significant main effects and interaction within the two independent variables.

Also, orthogonal comparisons were performed on the differences between the means of the four treatment groups. This was done to discover which combinations of the two independent variables were most successful in producing attitude change. Results of all these analyses are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After all phases of the treatment and control testing were completed, mean scores for each of the five groups were computed (Table I). These mean scores were used in all of the statistical analyses. The first analysis performed was a single analysis of variance to determine whether the treatment groups varied significantly from the control group with respect to their attitude levels. The second statistical operation was a two-way analysis of variance which was performed on the scores of the four treatment groups. This was to determine whether bases existed for rejection of the null hypotheses. Orthogonal comparisons were also performed for the purpose of identifying significant differences among the various combinations of the independent variables.

ANALYSIS OF TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUP DIFFERENCES

Table II summarizes the results of the single analysis of variance performed on the treatment and control groups. An F value of 16.73 with four numerator and 117 denominator degrees of freedom was found. This value was significant beyond the .01 level of confidence. The significance of the F ratio indicated that significant differences did occur between the attitude mean scores of the five groups. However, further statistical analysis was needed before definite

TABLE I

MEAN ATTITUDE SCORES FOR

THE CONTROL AND TREATMENT GROUPS

	Group	N	Mean Score
Control Group	C	24	62.67
	Lp	24	96.00
Treatment	Tp	23	82.78
Groups *	Li	26	82.38
	Ti	25	79.44

*Designations for treatment groups are as follows: 1) Lp- Live personal, 2) Tp-Televised personal, 3) Li-Live impersonal, and 4) Ti-Televised impersonal

TABLE II

SINGLE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

FOR CONTROL AND TREATMENT GROUPS

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Prob.
Between Groups	13,632.26	4	3,408.07	16.73	.01
Within Groups	23,831.42	117	203.69		
Total	37,463.68	121			

conclusions could be drawn. For this purpose, each of the treatment means was compared to the control mean by use of the Scheffe' method of orthogonal comparison. Each of the treatment groups showed differences from the control group that were significant at the .01 level of confidence (see Table III).

All treatment groups had significantly higher attitude scores than the control group. As the control group was only tested and was not exposed to any form of the treatment, it can be assumed that each variation of the treatment message was successful in producing attitude change in favor of the speaker's position. With this understanding, the experimenter then applied further statistical analysis to investigate the effects of the treatments in bringing about this successful attitude change.

STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF TREATMENT GROUPS

Two-way analysis of variance was performed on the mean scores of the treatment groups. The F ratios that were yielded were used to determine acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses. Briefly stated, the null hypotheses were 1) there is no significant difference between levels of personalization, 2) there is no significant difference between types of presentation, and 3) there is no significant interaction between the two independent variables. A summary of the 2 x 2 analysis of variance is presented in Table IV.

Null hypothesis number one was rejected. With one numerator and 94 denominator degrees of freedom, an F value of 7.83 was found to be significant at the .01 level of confidence. This indicated that there was a significant difference in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the level of stylistic personalization utilized. Examination of the means for the two levels of personalization (see Table V) revealed a mean score for personal

TABLE III

SCHEFFE' COMPARISON OF

TREATMENT GROUP MEANS TO

CONTROL GROUP MEAN

Groups	Mean Diff.	F	Prob.
M_{Lp}/M_C	33.33	65.46	.01
M_{Tp}/M_C	20.11	23.80	.01
M_{Li}/M_C	19.71	23.30	.01
M_{Ti}/M_C	16.77	16.90	.01

TABLE IV

2 X 2 FACTORIAL ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

FOR STYLISTIC PERSONALIZATION

AND METHOD OF PRESENTATION

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Prob.
Treatment A (Personalization)	1,599.36	1	1,599.36	7.83	.01
Treatment B (Presentation)	1,762.04	1	1,762.04	8.62	.01
Interaction (A X B)	646.80	1	646.80	3.17	n.s.
Error	19,204.06	94	204.30		
Total	23,212.26	97			

TABLE V

MEAN SCORES FOR

2 X 2 FACTORIAL ANALYSIS

Main Effect	Level	N	Mean Score	M. Diff.
Personalization	Personal	47	89.39	8.48
	Impersonal	51	80.91	
Presentation	Live	50	89.19	8.08
	Televised	48	81.11	

messages (89.39) that was considerably higher than the mean score for impersonal messages (80.91). Thus, it may be concluded that personalized style was significantly better than impersonal style in producing attitude change.

This finding seems to support traditional assumptions concerning the personalization of persuasive messages. As indicated earlier, speech text writers have emphasized the use of rhetorical questions and personal pronouns in persuasion. Indeed, in this particular research setting, these personalizing devices did establish what many writers have theorized to be a stronger basis for persuasion (2). In other words, the use of rhetorical questioning and personal pronouns was superior to an impersonal approach to persuasion.

Null hypothesis number two was also rejected. There were significant differences in audience attitude change in favor of the speaker's position attributable to the method of presentation utilized by the speaker. In analyzing this independent variable, an F ratio of 8.62 with one numerator and 94 denominator degrees of freedom was found to be significant beyond the .01 level of confidence. Examination of the means for the two methods of presentation (see Table V) revealed a mean score for the live presentation (89.19) that was considerably higher than that for the televised presentation (81.11). Therefore, it may be concluded that live presentation of the persuasive message was significantly superior to televised presentation in gaining favor for the speaker's position.

This finding is very interesting in that it seems to contradict a great deal of previous research such as that of Johnson (38), Becker, et al (26), Marion (39), and Clevenger and Cobin (30). All of these studies indicated that there was no significant difference between live and televised presentations.

However, much of the differences between their findings and the results of this study may be attributed to the fact that they were concerned with instructional rather than persuasive situations. Nevertheless, the results of this study do seem to lend greater credence to the work of Woodward (43) and the few others like him who found live presentations to be significantly more effective than those that were televised.

Perhaps of more importance is the contradiction that seems to occur between this research effort and that of Frandsen (36), who found no significant differences in attitude change for groups exposed to either televised or live persuasive presentations. In an effort to resolve this inconsistency, an examination of the two methodologies seems warranted. Two major differences are revealed. The first difference is that Frandsen employed a pre-test, post-test procedure. Such a procedure already has been demonstrated by Orne and others to be unreliable (6). A second difference is that Frandsen employed a different speaker for each method of presentation. However, Frandsen does report that audience perception of the effectiveness of the speakers did not vary significantly. Despite this fact, the use of different speakers may have affected attitude change in ways that were too subtle to be detected by measuring audience perception of effectiveness. In short, these two factors, testing procedure and the use of different speakers, were shortcomings of the Frandsen study that were not present in this research effort. Only further research will resolve the discrepancies between the two studies. But until that time, it should remain clear that in this particular research setting, live presentations were significantly superior to televised presentations in producing attitude change.

The third null hypothesis was that no significant differences in audience

attitude change in favor of the speaker's position are attributable to an interaction of levels of personalization and method of presentation utilized by a speaker. Analysis revealed an F ratio of 3.17 with one numerator and 94 denominator degrees of freedom. This value was not significant because an F of 3.93 was required to reach the .05 level of confidence. As a result the third null hypothesis was accepted; no significant interaction occurred.

After observing that each of the main effects, personalization and method of presentation, was significant, the experimenter then sought to discover which combinations of the two independent variables were more effective in producing attitude change than the others. For this purpose, the Scheffe' method of orthogonal comparisons was applied to the six possible combinations of comparisons. The results of this analysis are presented in Table VI.

In comparing the live, personal version of the persuasive message to the televised, impersonal version, an F value of 16.44 was obtained. This value was significant at the .01 level of confidence and indicated that the persuasive message that was personalized and delivered in person was significantly more effective in producing attitude change than one that is impersonal and delivered over television.

A comparison of the live, personal version to the live, impersonal speech revealed an F of 11.33 which was significant at the .05 level. As the live, personal version had a higher mean attitude score, it can be considered significantly superior to the live, impersonal version in producing attitude change.

Comparing the live, personal version to the televised, personal version yielded F of 10.05 which also was significant at the .05 level. Again, the live, personal version must be considered significantly superior in producing attitude

TABLE VI

SCHEFFE' COMPARISONS

TREATMENT GROUP MEAN DIFFERENCES

Groups	Mean Diff.	F	Prob.
M_{Lp}/M_{Ti}	20.56	16.44	.01
M_{Lp}/M_{Li}	17.62	11.33	.05
M_{Lp}/M_{Tp}	17.22	10.05	.05
M_{Tp}/M_{Ti}	3.34	.65	n.s.
M_{Tp}/M_{Li}	.40	.01	n.s.
M_{Li}/M_{Ti}	2.94	.54	n.s.

change than another version of the treatment message.

Although there were some differences between the mean scores, comparisons among the other combinations revealed F's below that level required for significance. Thus, each of the other three versions, televised-personal, televised-impersonal, and live-impersonal, must be regarded as relatively equal in producing attitude change.

The results of these comparisons seem to indicate that a live, personal persuasive message is superior to any other combination of the two independent variable. As applied to a theory of persuasion, however, these findings must be tempered by practical considerations. For example, when it is desirous to persuade large numbers of people who live in different geographical locations, it would be impractical to consider making live presentations when television can reach all these areas at the same time.

CONCLUSIONS

This study sought to discover the operations and interrelations of two independent variables, stylistic personalization and method of presentation, in a persuasive situation. Two levels of each variable were employed in the treatment of college students with a persuasive message designed to gain their favor for low lead gasoline. Likert-type attitude scales revealed that all four treatment versions produced attitudes significantly higher than a control group which received no treatment. Statistical analysis was then performed on the test results of the treatment groups in order to determine how each independent variable contributed to the attitude change.

PERSONALIZATION

The use of rhetorical questions and personal pronouns was found to be significantly more effective in producing attitude change than messages which did not employ these stylisitc devices. Thus, null hypothesis number one was rejected.

This finding is quite consistent with existing rhetorical theory dealing with message personalization. It therefore, seems justified to prescribe the use of stylistic personalization to speakers and speech writers seeking to persuade an audience.

METHOD OF PRESENTATION

Live presentation was found to be significantly more effective than a televised presentation in producing attitude change. As a result, null hypothesis number two also was rejected.

The implications of this finding represent apparent contradictions when compared to the results of other research efforts. Differences in design and methodology may account for these discrepancies. Only further research will allow a complete theory of method of presentation and how it applies to persuasion to be attained.

INTERACTION OF PERSONALIZATION AND PRESENTATION

Null hypothesis number three was accepted. The $\underline{F}$ ratio resultant from the analysis was not sufficient to reach the desired level of confidence.

ADDITIONAL CONCLUSIONS

Individual comparisons indicated several aspects concerning the interrelationships of the two variables. A combination of live presentation and personal

style was significantly more effective in producing attitude change than any other combination of the two variables. All other combinations of the variables were relatively equal in the amount of attitude change they produced. This writer believes these findings to have some practical implications on rhetorical theory. The basic consideration is that, when feasible, a speaker should use personal style and a live presentation in order to best persuade his audience.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It should be made clear that this study had some basic limitations. An effort should be made through future investigation to overcome these limitations. Among these shortcomings, was the selection of subjects. As is typical of many research efforts on college campuses, college students were used as subjects. While this does not negate the legitimacy of the research, it does not allow broad generalizations to be made about the general population. Therefore, the conclusions of this study and those of other studies using college students, must be considered in terms of the subjects that were used. To alleviate this problem this writer suggests that further research should attempt to work with other groups of subjects from various samples of the general population. In this way, more concrete and accurate conclusions can be drawn. Thus, the first suggestion for future research is to replicate this study using other population samples.

Another limitation of this study was the use of a single speaker. Although the speaker for this study was experience and well rehearsed, it may well be that his particular personality may have been better suited for one of the levels of

the independent variables moreso than any of the others. Thus, it is suggested that further replication of the methodology employed in this study should include speakers of varying personality traits.

One other limitation that should be dealt with is the measurement of attitude change. Although paper and pen methods have been used widely, perhaps a more accurate representation of persuasive effect would be some more demonstrative, overt behavior on the part of the subjects. This writer is fully aware of the logistical difficulties involved in such procedures, but if they are devised they should be utilized to replicate this and other studies which have used paper and pen methods.

In addition to the above suggestions, the experimenter believes the following areas to be fertile fields for future communication experimentation:

1) Investigation of other levels of message personalization should provide valuable information as to the effects of these stylistic devices on persuasion. One particular research effort might be to replicate this study but separate rhetorical questions and personal pronouns into individual treatment levels.

2) Correlational studies also might be executed in an attempt to contrast the effects of message personalization on different types of subjects, such as those of certain personality traits, sex, and so on.

3) Additional studies also seem warranted which would discover the effects of personalization in other types of communication situations, such as informative talks, inspirational messages, and so on.

4) Additional work is also needed to clear up several inconsistencies which have been discussed in regard to the effectiveness of various media

presentations in producing attitude change.

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APPENDIX A

PERSONAL SPEECH

As Americans, we are all aware of an ever-growing menace to our lives. That menace is air pollution. Almost everyday, you and I see the harmful effects of this massive threat to our existence.

As a recent issue of Consumer Reports points out, "air pollution isn't just ugly or irritating. It kills!" Can we allow this to continue? Can we allow the lives of our children and loved ones to be place in such serious jeopardy? Where is the answer to this monstrous problem?

Actually, our solution--or at least the beginning of it, is easily within our grasp. That solution is our use of low lead and lead free gasolines. However, for some reason, only about three per cent of us use these new gasoline products. Why? Why are we failing to take advantage of this solution to a great majority of our pollution problem?

It seems the opponents of low lead gasoline have developed three myths about our use of it. First, they tell us that it is ineffective in clearing our atmosphere. Second, they argue that it is too expensive. And thirdly, they maintain that it is harmful to our cars. Let's examine each one of these myths just to see where you and I have been misled by the opponents of low lead gas.

Is low lead gasoline effective in combating air pollution? Well--the facts

speak for themselves. Lead does not occur in our gasolines by an act of nature, but is instead added by gasoline producers to increase engine efficiency. However, a by-product of this has been the introduction of lead and lead compounds into the air we breathe. Unfortunately, this lead is poisonous! Dr. Robert Englander of Cal. Tech tells us if the level of lead compounds in our air is allowed to increase at the present rate, by 1985, the cities of New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Philadelphia will be ghost towns. Certainly this should make it clear that if we don't use low lead gasolines, we will be risking total catastrophe.

However, lead compounds in our air are just a part of the total problem. Man has yet to develop a machine that is one hundred per cent efficient, and this is certainly the case with our automobiles. Our cars simply do not burn up all the fuel that they use. As a result, we are casting hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, and nitrous oxide into our atmosphere. These emissions are even more dangerous to our health than lead. Among the hazards we face from these are skin and lung cancer, heart and circulatory ailments, and respiratory illnesses.

Now--removing lead from our gasolines does not remove these emissions from our air, but it does pave the way for the development of an istrument that will remove them. That instrument is called the Catalytic Converter. This device is a muffler-like canister that is mounted in the exhaust system of an automobile and chemically changes the harmful exhaust pollutants into harmless carbon dioxide and water. However, our Government has demanded that by 1975 all auto manufacturers must install these converters in their new cars. But, we are faced with a major barrier; the converter cannot be used with leaded gasolines. Lead

deposits build up in the converters and render them ineffective. Auto manufacturers are now fighting to have the 1975 deadline moved back. They argue that this is due to a reluctance on our part to use low lead gasolines. What the Government will decide, is still not evident. What is evident, though, is that by using low lead gas we will remove the deadly lead compounds from our air and we will pave the way for the development of the Catalytic Converter. Why then aren't we using low lead gasoline? Why aren't we taking advantage of this effective means of cleaning our atmosphere?

Some people argue that cost is a major deterrent to purchasing low lead gas. It is true that this gasoline does cost about one or two pennies more per gallon. However, if we use this excuse as a reason for failing to buy low lead gasoline, we are being very short-sighted. Carl Harris of the United States Environmental Protection Agency tells us that the added cost of low lead gasoline would amount to only ten or fifteen dollars per year. But, more importantly, if the consumer demand would rise only by fifteen per cent, the cost of low lead gas would be equal to what we are now paying for regular. Why then do we refuse to use low lead gasoline because of its price?

There is still one final argument that many of us have used against low lead gasoline. For some reason we have maintained that it is harmful to our cars. Motor Trend magazine recently stated that this contention is pure "hogwash." First, they point out that every auto manufactured since 1971 was made to run on low lead gasoline. No longer do our cars require the high power, high octane gases of yesteryear. In fact, Motor Trend's study pointed out that a comparison survey revealed that cars using low lead gasoline got thirteen per cent better

mileage, twenty per cent reduction in engine hesitation, and reduced wear on exhaust controls, tailpipes, mufflers, rings, and cylinders. That's right---you get thirteen per cent better mileage.

It has also been recently discovered that a great majority of our automobiles manufactured before 1971 can be altered to run on low lead gasoline. Dr. Michael Carson of the Society of Automotive Engineers tells us that a simple adjustment of the engine timing will allow more than eighty per cent of our cars produced before 1971 to run on low lead gasoline with no loss of efficiency. This would cost you, as the car owner, only about three or four dollars and a fifteen minute trip to your nearest mechanic.

We have seen the three myths of low lead gasoline. Each one has proven to be false. No longer can we argue that low lead gas is an ineffective method of controlling air pollution. No longer can we contend that it is too expensive. And no longer can we claim it to be harmful to our cars.

You and I have a solution to one of the major problems of our times. Why should we fall short of our duty? Why shouldn't we make the air we breathe clearer and cleaner for ourselves and our fellow man? I urge each and everyone of you to make your next tank-full, low lead gasoline.

IMPERSONAL SPEECH

Americans are all aware of an ever-growing menace to their lives. That menace is air pollution. Almost everyday the harmful effects of this massive threat to existence are seen.

As a recent issue of Consumer Reports points out, "air pollution isn't just ugly or irritating. It kills!" This cannot be allowed to continue. The lives of children and loved ones should not be placed in such serious jeopardy. A solution must be found for this monstrous threat that man has created.

Actually, the solution, or at least the beginning of it, is now within grasp. That solution is the use of low lead or lead free gasoline. However, for some reason, only about three per cent of Americans use these new gasoline products. Americans are failing to take advantage of this solution to a great majority of the pollution problem.

It seems the opponents of low lead gasoline have developed three myths about its use. First, these people argue that it is ineffective in clearing the atmosphere. Second, they argue that it is too expensive. And thirdly, they maintain that it is harmful to cars. An examination of each one of these myths indicates that Americans have been misled by the opponents of low lead gasoline.

Low lead gasoline is effective in combating air pollution. The facts speak for themselves. Lead does not occur in gasoline by an act of nature, but is instead

added by gasoline producers to increase engine efficiency. However, a by-product of this has been the introduction of lead and lead compounds into the air. Unfortunately, this lead is poisonous! Dr. Robert Englander of Cal. Tech states that if the level of lead compounds in the air is allowed to increase at the present rate, by 1985 the cities of New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Philadelphia will be ghost towns. Certainly this should make it clear that if low lead gasolines are not used, this nation will be risking total catastrophe.

However, lead compounds in the air are just a part of the total problem. Man has yet to develop a machine that is one hundred per cent efficient. This is certainly the case with automobiles. Cars simply do not burn up all the fuel that they use. As a result, hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, and nitrous oxide are cast into the atmosphere. These emissions are even more dangerous to health than lead. Among the hazards they cause are skin and lung cancer, heart and circulatory ailments, and various types of respiratory illnesses.

Now--removing lead from gasolines does not remove these emissions from the air, but it does pave the way for the development of an instrument that will remove them. That instrument is called the Catalytic Converter. This device is a muffler-like canister that is mounted in the exhaust system of an automobile and chemically changes the harmful exhaust pollutants into harmless carbon dioxide and water. The Government has demanded that by 1975 all auto manufacturers must install these converters in their new cars. However, there is a major barrier; the converter cannot be used with leaded gasolines. Lead deposits build up in the converters and render them ineffective. Auto manufacturers are now

fighting to have the 1975 deadline moved back. They argue that this is due to a reluctance on the part of the consumer to utilize low lead gasoline. What the Government will decide is still not evident. What is evident though, is that the use of low lead gas will remove the deadly lead compounds from the air and will pave the way for the development of the Catalytic Converter. But, Americans are not using the low lead gasoline and are not taking advantage of this effective means of cleaning up the atmosphere.

Some people argue that cost is a major deterrent to purchasing low lead gasoline. It is true that this gas does cost about one or two pennies more per gallon. However, by using this excuse for failing to buy low lead gasoline, people are being very short-sighted. Carl Harris of the United States Environmental Protection Agency states that the added cost of low lead gasoline would amount to only ten or fifteen dollars per year. But more importantly, if consumer demand would rise by only fifteen per cent the cost of low lead gas would be equal to what is now paid for regular.

There is still one final argument that many have used against low lead gasoline. For some reason, people have maintained that it is harmful to cars. Motor Trend magazine recently stated that this contention is pure "hogwash." First, they point out that every auto manufactured since 1971 was made to run on low lead gasoline. No longer do the engines of automobiles require the high power, high octane gases of yesteryear. In fact, Motor Trend's study pointed out that a comparison survey revealed that cars using low lead gasoline got thirteen per cent better mileage, twenty per cent reduction in engine hesitation, and reduced wear on exhaust controls, tailpipes, mufflers, rings, and cylinders.

That's right---thirteen per cent better mileage.

It has also been recently discovered that a great majority of automobiles manufactured before 1971 can be run on low lead gas with a slight alteration. Dr. Michael Carson of the Society of Automotive Engineers points out that a simple adjustment of the engine timing will allow more than eighty per cent of the cars produced before 1971 to use low lead gas with no loss of efficiency. This would cost the car owner only about three or four dollars and a fifteen minute trip to the nearest mechanic.

The three myths of low lead gasoline have proven to be false. No longer can people argue that low lead gas is an ineffective method of controlling air pollution. No longer can they contend that it is too expensive. And no longer can they claim it to be harmful to cars.

The people have a solution to one of the major problems of present times. Americans should not fall short of their duty. They should make the air they breathe clearer and cleaner for all people. Everyone should make his next tank-full, low lead gasoline.

APPENDIX B

MEASURING DEVICE

This is a survey conducted by the Louisiana Association of Petroleum Engineers. Would you please read each statement carefully and respond by giving your own opinion.

You may state your opinion by circling one of the seven choices below each statement. These choices indicate the degree to which you either agree or disagree with the statement. The seven choices are:

SA-strongly agree - MA-moderately agree - BA-barely agree

No-no opinion

BD-barely disagree - MD-moderately disagree - SD-strongly disagree

Please respond to every statement, but make certain that you make only one response to a statement. Thank you for your time and effort.

1. The use of gasoline with lead additives can cause death.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

2. Low lead gas is the best method available to stop automotive air pollution.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

3. Low lead gas is an insignificant part of the fight against air pollution.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

4. The next time I fill my car, I'll probably have the gas attendant put lead gas in my tank.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

5. Low lead gas is just another fad developed to sell a new product.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

6. Low lead gas is too expensive.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

7. Gasolines that have lead additives are the cause of a major health hazard to the American people.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

8. I would be a happier person if more people used low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

9. There are many valid reasons not to use low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

10. My family would be more secure if I used low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

11. Those that argue against low lead gas are misinformed.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

12. If more people used low lead gas, its price will go down.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

13. Automotive air pollution is really an over-rated problem.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

14. Gasoline that uses strong lead additives should be outlawed.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

15. The use of low lead gas causes excessive wear and tear to autos.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

16. Lives could be saved if we all used low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

17. The use of low lead gas should aid in the development of other methods of curbing air pollution.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

18. Many of today's powerful new cars cannot use low lead gas because they require high octane fuels.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

19. If I use low lead gas, I really won't be doing much to solve the problem of air pollution.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

20. Today's low lead gasolines are inferior to those with lead additives.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

21. It is my duty to use low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

22. People who use gas with high lead content are committing murder.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

23. By using low lead gas, people would be joining together in a fight against one of the greatest tragedies of our times.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

24. The use of low lead gas reduces engin efficiency in many cars.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

25. The American people have been misled by the opponents of low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

26. It is much too costly to adapt older cars for the use of low lead gas.

SA MA BA NO BD MD SD

APPENDIX C

Item Analysis Results from Comparison of Upper and Lower Quartiles of Control Group*

Likert-type question #	Upper Group Mean Score	Lower Group Mean Score	Mean Diff.	t Value	proba-bility**
1	3.17	2.67	.50	.49	n. s.
2	4.83	3.17	1.66	2.17	n. s.
3	5.33	2.67	2.66	6.33	.01
4	5.00	2.17	2.83	5.15	.01
5	5.17	3.00	2.17	4.62	.01
6	2.67	1.67	1.00	2.50	.05
7	4.33	1.83	2.50	4.32	.01
8	3.83	2.17	1.66	4.16	.01
9	3.50	2.83	.67	2.79	.05
10	2.67	1.67	1.00	2.23	.05

*n = 6 for each quartile

** df = 10

11	4.17	3.16	1.01	2.81	.05
12	4.83	3.33	1.50	4.34	.01
13	5.17	4.50	.67	1.46	n.s.
14	4.33	2.67	1.66	4.80	.01
15	2.83	2.67	.06	.53	n.s.
16	3.83	1.50	2.33	5.21	.01
17	5.33	4.00	1.33	5.97	.01
18	3.83	2.33	1.50	4.89	.01
19	4.67	3.33	1.34	7.75	.01
20	3.33	2.33	1.00	3.78	.01
21	3.67	1.00	2.67	5.03	.01
22	1.50	.17	1.33	5.54	.01
23	4.83	2.16	2.67	8.34	.01
24	3.50	2.50	1.00	5.99	.01
25	3.50	3.50	.00	.00	n.s.
26	3.00	2.50	.50	1.36	n.s.

VITA

Ronald S. McCrory was born on April 28, 1947, in Laurel, Mississippi. At the age of four, he and his family moved to Alexandria, Louisiana where he attended the local public schools and graduated from Bolton High School in 1965. He then spent the next five years at Louisiana Tech University in Ruston where he received his B.A. and M.A. in speech. In his senior year he married the former Laura Kathleen Brown.

After receiving his Master's degree, he moved to Arlington, Texas and served as Instructor of Speech and Director of Forensics at the University of Texas at Arlington.

In August of 1971, McCrory enrolled in the doctoral program in speech at Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge. After working full time on the doctorate for a period of two years, he took a position as Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of Forensics at the University of Southwestern Louisiana at Lafayette where he and his wife now reside. McCrory received the Ph.D. in December of 1973.

EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: Ronald Stanley McCrory

Major Field: Speech

Title of Thesis: Effects of Stylistic Personalization and Method of Presentation on Persuasion

Approved:

J. Donald Pegoda
Major Professor and Chairman

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Date of Examination: July 27, 1973